

GLOSSARY

Section 1: Persuasive devices

Overview of Persuasive Rhetorical Discourse

Following the classical philosophers, persuasive rhetorical discourse is constituted by:

- the selection of ideas (invention)
- the arrangement of the ideas into arguments or proofs (disposition)
- the choice of language (style)

Ethos, Logos and Pathos are the means by which persuasion to a point of view on an issue can occur.

Ethos: persuading by appealing to the readers' values

Logos: persuading by the means of logical reasoning

Pathos: persuading by appealing to the reader's emotion

The following table lists some features of arguments that draw on Ethos, Logos and Pathos.

Ethos - appeal to values	Logos - appeal to reason	Pathos - appeal to emotion
Value of relationships	Dispassionate language	Emphatic statements
Appeal to truth	Objective author stance	Emotive language
Duty of care	Citing of a relevant authority	Direct appeal to the reader
Creation of a just society	Objective view of opposition	Appeal to spurious authority
Community responsibility	Qualified measured statements	Disparagement of opposition

Persuasive Devices

Authoritative statement

Statements that are irrefutable in the context of the argument e.g. *Dogs love human attention.*

Conditional mood

The conditional mood is recognised by subordinate clauses beginning with words or phrases such as *if, unless, as long as, even if, even though, on the condition that.*

Direct address of the reader

A direct address of the reader, recognised by the use of *you/us/we*, has the effect of drawing the reader to identify with the writer's position.

- *You may have noticed that over the last couple of years the issue of animals ...*
- *We need them to supply us with food.*

Emphasis

- Punctuation (e.g. underlining, bolding, exclamation mark, capitalisation, quotation marks)
- Overstatement
- Understatement
- Repetition for effect
- Single words
- Words or phrases at the beginning or end of successive clauses or statements e.g. *the grasslands of Africa and the grasslands of Taronga zoo ...*
- Repetitions and parallel constructions in threes (e.g. tricolon, lists) to build to a culmination.
- Anecdote (see Figurative language, below)

Emphatic statements

Emphatic statements are forcible statements that are used to give emphasis.

- *I should see no point in how it may be cruel.*
- *It will never be the same.*

Figurative language

Figurative language refers to the techniques of language which help construct images in the reader's mind and includes alliteration, imagery, similes and metaphors, personification, idioms and word play (pun). Anecdote may also be used to illustrate or emphasise an issue (e.g. see the script *The lion's glorious hair*).

Humour, irony and sarcasm

Humour is shown where the amusing or comical is expressed.

Irony occurs when the literal meaning is the opposite of that intended. It may be expressed as an understatement, be used in a playful manner or to ridicule.

Sarcasm is scornful or derisory comment. It may be employed through irony (to ridicule).

Hyperbole

Hyperbole is a figure of speech in which statements are exaggerated. It may be used to evoke strong feelings or to create a strong impression, but is rarely meant to be taken literally.

Imperative mood

The imperative mood is present in statements of high modality that are used to express direct requests and commands, either positively or negatively, for the effect of excluding argument. It addresses either the second person (you) or first person plural (we), e.g. *Don't let it happen again!* or *We must stop caging animals now!*

Modality

Modality covers expressions of how the world might be and should be and includes expressions of necessity, permissibility and probability, and negations of these.

- Modal verbs of permissibility and probability: would/wouldn't, should/shouldn't, could/couldn't, may/may not, might/might not
- Modal verbs with high modality (necessity): must, will, need to, have to
- Modal adjectives: possible, probable, certain
- Modal adverbs: possibly, probably, certainly
- Modal nouns: possibility, probability, certainty

Personal opinion

- *I think it is cruel to put animals in cages.*
- *In my opinion only certain animals should be locked up.*

Reference statements

Reference statements are those where a source is cited. They may lend authority to an argument. In the context of the NAPLAN writing test, allowances are made for the test conditions where students do not have access to research material.

Rhetorical questions

Rhetorical questions implicitly contain their own answer.

- *This is a lion in captivity. Is this cruel?*

Value statements

- *I believe that if an animal is in a good habitat but treated unfairly it is wrong.*
- *Animals can be kept in small cages for weeks and starved, forced to live upon unethical conditions.*

Section 2: Vocabulary

Adjective

Adjectives are words that give additional information about the noun. They can be used before a noun or after a verb.

Before a noun: *Stubborn teenagers will not heed sensible advice.*

After a verb: *Teenagers can be stubborn.*

Adverb

Adverbs give additional information about verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. They tell how, when and where something happens, e.g. *he walked slowly; I'll see you tomorrow; the dog ran away, he arrived extremely late, the animal grew increasingly restless.* The final two examples show adverbial phrases.

Figurative language – see Section 1: Persuasive Devices

Metaphor

A metaphor is a figure of speech where one thing is said to be another. They do not use *like* or *as*, e.g. *The work done by volunteers is the glue that holds a community together. My fingers are ice.*

Noun

Nouns are known as naming words. There are two main classifications of nouns: common nouns and proper nouns. Common nouns name people, places or things and are said to be either concrete (e.g. *boy, city, sheep, chair, family, sunshine*), collective (*flock, army, crowd, band*) or abstract (*hope, frustration, liberty*). Proper nouns name specific people, places or things and should always start with a capital letter, e.g. *James, Canberra, Dubbo Zoo*.

Preposition

Prepositions (from the Latin meaning *placed before*) express a time or space relationship between two people or things. They are words such as *below, for, down, above, to, near, under, since, between, with, before, after, into, from, beside, without, out, during, past, over, until, through, off, on, across, by, in, around, onto*. Prepositions are always followed by a noun or pronoun.

Prepositional phrases, e.g. *in the wild; with tears in her eyes*, can be used as a device to enhance description.

Pronoun

A pronoun stands in place of a noun or noun group. A pronoun refers to something that has been named and has already been written about, e.g. *The harbour is a popular place. It is mostly used by fishermen.* Pronouns work only if they are not ambiguous (that is, there is a clear line of reference) and are not used too repetitively. Examples of common pronouns are:

I, you, she, it, we, they, mine, ours, yourself, himself	<u>You</u> can't keep all the apples <u>yourself</u> !
this, that, these, those	<u>These</u> are mine.
each, any, some, all, much, many	<u>Some</u> will be given to Peter.
who, which, what, whose, whom	<u>Who</u> is visiting tomorrow?

Simile

A simile is a figure of speech which compares one thing with another by using *like* or *as*, e.g. *Without the business that teenagers bring, the shopping centre would be like a wasteland.* The two things being compared must be different, e.g. the example *The distant building looked like a castle* would not be a simile if the building was in fact a castle.

Verb

Verbs are the basis of any message communicated. They are the engine of the sentence or clause and provide movement or action, or a sense of what is happening. Different types of verbs are used, depending on the purpose of the text. The writing could feature:

- action verbs ('doing' words): *The animals are fed every day.*
- Saying verbs: *I have explained why animals should not be kept in cages; scientists report better outcomes for the animals in open sanctuaries.*
- thinking verbs: *I believe that ... , I agree with ... , I think my idea is ... , it is thought that*
- relational verbs: *We have the right. They will not be free.*

Extended verb groups indicate many sentence features, such as tense and modality, e.g. *They have been working on it for a long time. (tense); Animals should not be kept in captivity. (modality).*

Section 3: Cohesion

Cohesion is about linking ideas or concepts and controlling threads and relationships over the whole text. Cohesion in a text is achieved through use of various devices.

Connectives (signal words or discourse markers)

Connectives are used to link ideas to one another across paragraphs and sentences to show logical relationships of time, cause and effect, comparison or addition. They can be placed at various positions within a sentence.

The logical relationships can be grouped as follows:

- **Temporal** (to indicate time or sequence ideas)
first, second, next, meanwhile, till, while, then, later, previously, finally, to conclude
- **Causal** (to show cause and effect)
because, for, so, consequently, due to, hence, since, accordingly
- **Additive** (to add information)
also, moreover, above all, equally, besides, furthermore, as well as, or, nor, additionally
- **Comparative**
rather, elsewhere, instead, alternatively, on the other hand
- **Conditional/concessive** (to make conditions or concessions)
yet, still, although, unless, however, otherwise, still, despite, nevertheless
- **Clarifying**
in fact, for example, in support of this, to refute

Conjunctions are a form of connective and are used to join ideas within one sentence. They are placed at the beginning of a clause. Some conjunctions are and, but, by, or, if, since, although, though.

Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of words that repeat what has gone before; these items are simply understood.

The project will be innovative. To be involved will be exciting. In the second sentence, in the project is ellipsed.

Referring words

Referring words maintain continuity and avoid repetition.

- **Noun-pronoun chains:** *You should not put animals in cages because they would want to be in the wild with their family.*
- **Articles (e.g. a, an, the):** *My idea of a perfect zoo is the one in Dubbo*
- **Demonstratives (e.g. this, that, there, these):** *That bicycle was very expensive. John had owned mice before but this mouse was different.*
- **Quantifying determiners (e.g. every, much, many, most, numbers):** *There is much interest being shown. Many children went to the zoo. The rule applies to every person. I have one car.*

Substitution

Substitution refers to words that replace noun groups or verb groups: such, one:

There was a lot of swearing and abuse. Such language is simply not acceptable.

Word associations (or lexical cohesion)

- **Repetition:** *They have to work for dinner ... they have to work for visitors.*
- **Synonyms:** *The weather had been hot. It was another boiling day.*
- **Antonyms:** *Wild animals should not be kept in captivity. They need open spaces.*
- **Word sets: class and sub-class, or whole and part clusters of words:** *Wild animals/lions, tigers, hippos; food/eggs, meat.*
- **Collocation:** words which typically go together, making the text flow well. *cages/bars/locked; river/bank/water.*

Section 4: Sentence structure

4.1 SENTENCES

A sentence is a group of words that makes complete sense. It is marked in writing by beginning with a capital letter and ending with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark. There are four functions for sentences:

Making statements: *The girl shot a goal.*

Asking questions: *Did the girl shoot a goal?*

Uttering commands: *Shoot the goal!*

Voicing exclamations: *What a great goal!*

4.2 SENTENCE AND CLAUSE TYPES

Simple sentence

A simple sentence is one that contains a single clause. Birds should be let free.

Compound sentence

In compound sentences there are two or more clauses which are coordinated, or linked, so that each clause has equal status. Clauses in compound sentences are usually joined by the conjunctions *and*, *but*, *or*, *and so* and *then*.

Birds should be released and allowed back in the wild.

Complex sentence

A complex sentence contains embedded and/or subordinate clauses. The feature of embedded clauses is that the clause is part of the structure of another clause and therefore does not have a coordinating relationship with the main clause.

Subordinating clause: When the birds are let free, they will be able to catch their own food.

Embedded clause: When the birds that have been locked up are let free, they will be able to catch their own food.

Adjectival clause

An adjectival (or relative) is a clause that gives additional information about a noun or noun group. It is embedded if the information it provides is located within the subject or object of another clause. An adjectival clause generally (but not always) begins with a relative pronoun such as *who*, *which* or *that*.

Subject: The play equipment that children love is not necessarily the safest equipment in the playground.

Object: Children love playing with equipment which allows them to use their imagination.

Adverbial clause

An adverbial clause is a subordinate or dependent clause that provides optional information about time, place, condition, concession, reason, purpose or result.

Time: After studying so hard during the week, all students want to do on the weekend is relax.

Concession: Children may still get hurt, even if the climbing equipment is removed.

Condition: If the cage is too small, the animals cannot move around.

Reason: The ban should be lifted because it discriminates against teenagers.

Noun clause

A noun clause is a clause that acts as the subject or object of another clause.

Subject: What he had been ordered to do weighed heavily on his mind.

Object: Some studies show that crimes committed by teenagers are rising.

Subject with adjectival clause: Conserving endangered animal species that are threatened by habitat destruction should be the priority of all zoos.

4.3 BASIC STRUCTURES

The examples below exemplify basic sentence structures referred to in the Sentence Structure criterion of this marking guide. Main clauses are underlined.

Basic simple sentence

Animals are important.

Basic complex sentence with projected clause

I think (that) you should not put animals in cages.

Basic complex sentence with dependent clause following main clause

It is cruel because the animals don't have freedom.

Basic compound/complex sentence with projected clause

It is good to keep birds in cages but other animals can go into the zoo.

Basic complex sentence with projected clause and dependent clause following main clause

I think (that) it is cruel because the animals don't have freedom.

I agree that people are unkind when they do not treat animals well.

Basic complex sentence with dependent clause starting with 'if' preceding main clause

If the cage is too small, the animal cannot move around.

4.4 MORE SOPHISTICATED STRUCTURES

The examples below exemplify more sophisticated sentence structures referred to in the Sentence Structure criterion of this marking guide. Main clauses are underlined.

Extended simple sentence

Like all living things, animals have personalities too.

Complex sentence containing projected clause and dependent clause following main clause

I agree that animals should be kept in cages because they won't need to fight other animals.

Compound/complex sentence with adverbial phrase preceding first clause and dependent clause following the second clause

One glorious morning I woke up and it was time to go to the shops.

Complex sentences containing dependent clauses starting with 'when' and 'because' preceding main clause

When animals are kept in captivity, their life expectancy is reduced.

Because animals need open spaces, they should not be locked in cages.

Extended complex sentence with dependent clauses following main clause

For working animals such as dogs or horses, it generally isn't cruel to keep them in captivity depending on the work they are required to do.

Extended complex sentence with embedded dependent clause

You may have noticed that over the last couple of years, the issue of animals' wellbeing has been debated time and time again.

Extended complex with two dependent clauses – one preceding and one following the main clause

Being aware of the need to feed the animals properly, the zookeeper worked hard to provide a nourishing diet that ensured their health.

Extended complex sentence with extended (compound) dependent clause following the main clause

Zoo keepers may argue that being kept in a cage increases the chance of survival and allows reproduction to continue.

Extended complex sentence containing multiple dependent clauses

Although I agree that releasing animals into the wild may be beneficial to some animals, I do believe that most zoos, as least those that are operated by trained and caring people, succeed in providing animals with good care.

Section 5. Punctuation

Punctuation is used to aid the smooth reading of a text.

Brackets

Round brackets, or parentheses, enclose information or comment within an otherwise complete sentence. Brackets are used for adding information, giving explanations, clarification, providing examples, and afterthoughts, comments and asides.

Colons

Colons are normally used to signal the following:

a list: *The children do the same things every day: climb, jump, play on the swings and build build sandcastles.*

an explanation: *One consequence is inevitable: people will get hurt.*

a subtitle: *School Safety: Can Cameras Combat Crime?*

Commas

Commas are used within sentences to separate information into readable units and guide the reader as to the relationship between phrases and clauses. Commas act as markers to help the reader voice the meaning of long sentences, e.g. when a sentence begins with a phrase or a subordinate clause, the comma indicates where the main clause begins.

Commas are also used to separate items in a list.

Hyphen

The hyphen is a small dash that is used to:

- link two words to form a single word: *one-way street; like-minded friend; button-like nose.*
- clarify meaning and avoid ambiguity: *Man-eating tiger seen at zoo; Her grandmother owned a walking-stick.*
- avoid letter collision: *shell-like; re-establish, co-worker.*

Points of ellipsis

Points of ellipsis (...) are used to indicate the omission of text, suspense or a time lapse.

Quotation marks

Quotation marks (or inverted commas) identify words that are spoken by a character (direct speech) or written words that belong to people other than the writer. There is an increasing trend for single quotation marks (' ... ') to be used in place of double quotation marks although this is a matter of style.

Semicolons

Semicolons are used to separate two independent clauses containing different though related pieces of information: the use of a semicolon strengthens the link between ideas, e.g. *the installation of closed circuit television cameras will make teachers and students more self conscious; schools will no longer be a comfortable place.* This could be written as two separate sentences. The use of a comma in this example would make the sentence incorrect.

Semicolons are also used to separate complex items in a list, e.g. *In the event of a fire, all students must: leave the building immediately; not attempt to take any materials with them; assemble in the main quadrangle with their roll class.*

Using semicolons with conjunctive adverbs

A semicolon should be used to join two independent clauses when the second clause begins with a conjunctive adverb that relates (ties in) the idea of the first clause or it is of equal emphasis. The conjunctive adverb and the clause that follows must stand alone, i.e. it can be written as one sentence.

A full stop is used where more emphasis is required for the second clause. In the following examples, both versions are correct.

We would like to go Morocco for the holidays; accordingly, we will have to apply for visas.
We would like to go Morocco for the holidays. Accordingly, we will have to apply for visas.

They wanted to go to the concert; however, it was impossible to get a ticket.
They wanted to go to the concert. However, it was impossible to get a ticket.

Some conjunctive adverbs are: *accordingly, furthermore, moreover, nevertheless similarly, however, therefore, otherwise, instead namely, still, finally, consequently, indeed, certainly.*